Automatic Generation of Technical Documentation

Ehud Reiter, Chris Mellish, and John Levine, Department of Artificial Intelligence
University of Edinburgh
Edinburgh EH1 1HN
Scotland

Abstract

Natural-language generation (NLG) techniques can be used to automatically produce technical documentation from a domain knowledge base and linguistic and contextual models. We discuss this application of NLG technology from both a technical and a usefulness (costs and benefits) perspective. This discussion is based largely on our experiences with the IDAS documentation-generation project, and the reactions various interested people from industry have had to IDAS. We hope that this summary of our experiences with IDAS and the lessons we have learned from it will be beneficial for other researchers who wish to build technical-documentation generation systems.

This paper will appear in Applied Artificial Intelligence, volume 9 (1995).

^{*}Now at CoGenTex, Inc, 840 Hanshaw Rd, Ithaca, NY 14850 USA. Email is ehud@cogentex.com.

[†]Email is c.mellish@ed.ac.uk.

[‡]Email is j.levine@ed.ac.uk.

1 Introduction

Natural-language generation (NLG) is a young but growing research field, whose goal is to build computer systems that can automatically produce fluent texts in English, French, and other human languages. To date NLG has mainly been of interest to academic researchers, but fielded application systems based on this technology have recently begun to appear (e.g., [Goldberg et al., 1994]).

In this paper, we discuss one particular application of NLG technology, automatic generation of technical documentation, mostly from the perspective of 'what can the technology do and what are its costs and benefits', instead of 'how does it work'. Our discussion is general, but much of it is based on our experiences with the IDAS technical-documentation generation project, which we worked on from 1990 until 1993. IDAS was a partial but not a complete success, and we will discuss its weaknesses as well as its strengths, and the lessons we have learned both from building IDAS and from the reactions interested people from industry have had to the system; these lessons will hopefully be of use in future attempts to build technical documentation generation systems.

Technical documentation refers to the extensive design, maintenance, and operations documents that must be supplied with complex machinery; we are primarily interested here in documents that are intended to be read by technicians and other experts, as opposed to 'the man in the street' (e.g., aircraft maintenance manuals, not VCR operations manuals). Producing technical documentation is a very expensive process, and furthermore one that is relatively unautomated compared to other aspects of the design process; in other words, there is as yet no equivalent in the technical-documentation field of the Computer-Aided-Design (CAD) tools that have significantly enhanced the productivity of design engineers. One potential candidate for the 'CAD tool for technical authors' is systems that use natural-language generation technology to automatically produce technical documents from various data- and knowledge-bases (KBs), and the potential effectiveness and appropriateness of such tools is the subject of this paper.

IDAS, the Intelligent Documentation Advisory System, was a three year collaborative effort between the University of Edinburgh, Racal Instruments Ltd, Racal Research Ltd, and Inference Europe Ltd. Its goal was to build an advanced on-line documentation system for users of Racal ATEs (automatic test equipment), which could give ATE users help messages that were tailored to the context and the user. Part of the project involved an attempt to build what might be called an 'advanced canned-text system', which used hypertext and object-oriented techniques to make a 'conventional' canned-text help and online-documentation system both more effective (for users) and easier to create, update, and otherwise modify (for authors). The rest of the project was more ambitious, and attempted to automatically generate documentation from a domain KB and contextual models, using NL generation techniques; this is the part of the project that the group at Edinburgh was most involved with, and the focus of this paper. As of the time of writing, the NLG system seems less likely to be incorporated into Racal and Inference products than the advanced canned-text system, essentially because it does not offer sufficient benefits to make its extra cost worthwhile. This is largely because when we started the project, we had only a very vague idea about what the actual costs and benefits of using NLG in document-generation applications were, and therefore did not emphasize the benefits that turned out to be most significant. Thanks largely to the valuable comments and criticisms about IDAS that we have obtained from various interested people in industry, we now have a much better idea of potential NLG costs and benefits and their relative importance, and we hope that our presentation here of the lessons we have learned from IDAS will help future researchers who are interested in building technical-documentation generation systems.

The rest of this paper will go over these points in more detail. Section 2 will examine the general idea of producing technical documentation from a knowledge base with NL generation techniques, including a summary of the costs and benefits of this approach. Section 3 presents a summary of IDAS: what it does, how it works, etc. Section 4 will present an evaluation of the IDAS NLG-from-KB system, including the reactions of our collaborators and other interested potential users as well as a summary of our user trials. Finally, in Section 5 we will try to summarize the lessons we have learned that we think are most important for future efforts to build technical documentation generation systems.

2 Technical Documentation

2.1 The Problem

Complex machinery of necessity requires complex documentation, and producing technical documentation is a time-consuming and expensive task for many corporations. Stories abound of, for example, engineers who spend five hours documenting for every hour they spend designing, or of airplane documentation sets which weigh more than the plane they document. In many cases, technical documents also must meet externally imposed writing or content standards, be translated into several languages, and be written for easy maintenance and updating; all of these factors make the documentation yet more expensive and time-consuming to produce.

The problem of generating technical-documentation in a cost-effective manner is becoming even more critical because advanced Computer-Aided-Design (CAD) tools are reducing the time required to design objects, but no equivalent tools have been developed to reduce the time required to document designs. Tools that could reduce document-creation time in a similar fashion to the way CAD tools have reduced design-creation times would be of tremendous value to numerous organizations, and also a boon to engineers (many of whom find designing a more interesting and enjoyable task than documenting!).

2.2 Using NL Generation

Much of the information presented in technical documentation is already present in machine-readable form in CAD systems, component-description databases, knowledge bases created for expert-system applications, etc. This suggests attempting to automatically create at least a portion of the relevant technical document from this data, using natural-language generation techniques. The NLG approach has several potential advantages, which are described below.

2.2.1 Reduced Cost to Generate and Maintain Documentation

If most of the information required to generate the documentation is already present in a database or knowledge base of some kind, then the NLG approach can reduce the time and effort required to produce documentation. This should be the case even if the system's output needs to be post-edited by a human, or if additional information needs to be entered into the system to support document generation, provided the amount of post-editing and extra information required is not over-large.

Cost savings may be even more significant for document maintenance than initial document creation. As with software, maintaining and updating a document can be more costly than initially creating it; the problem here is not so much fixing spelling and grammatical mistakes in a document, but rather keeping a document up-to-date when the machine it describes is upgraded or released in a new configuration. In many cases such upgrades and new configurations can be represented by very simple changes to a design database that describes the machine, and the NLG approach allows the new documentation to be produced automatically once the design has been upgraded in this manner.

For example, if a machine is upgraded by installing a higher-capacity power supply, the NLG approach allows the specifications of the new power supply to be loaded into a single well-defined place in the domain KB, from which they will be automatically propagated to all relevant documentation texts. In many cases this can be significantly easier than manually making such changes, particularly if references to the power supply are scattered throughout the documentation set.

2.2.2 Guaranteed Consistency Between Documentation and Design

Current practice often requires engineers to instantiate their designs twice: once in a design database (e.g., CAD system), which may be used to drive automated Computer-Aided-Manufacturing (CAM) equipment; and once in a human-readable document, where maintainers and users can learn about it. This duplicate instantiation is of course expensive, but perhaps even more significant is the danger of inconsistencies. If the design described in the document is not exactly the same as the design entered in the design database, the user may misuse the machine, and the manufacturing company will be held legally liable if its documentation was not correct. The NLG approach allows the designer to instantiate his or her design once, into a design database or knowledge base that is augmented to also represent the extra data needed for document generation; this greatly reduces the possibility of errors due to inconsistency between the machine- and human- readable representations (as well as potentially reducing effort, since designers only have to instantiate their designs once instead of twice).

As with the reduced cost benefit (Section 2.2.1), guaranteed consistency can be especially important for document maintenance. If a machine is upgraded or released in a new configuration, it is very easy for the documenter to forget to make some of the necessary changes in the documentation, especially if the current document maintainer is not the original document author; the NLG approach can significantly reduce the risk of this eventuality.

2.2.3 Guaranteed Conformance to Standards

Many documents are required to obey writing or content standards. Writing standards are usually intended to ensure that the language used in a document is unambiguous and easily comprehensible, especially for non-native English speakers. Examples of such standards include AECMA Simplified English [AECMA, 1986] and Perkins Approved Clear English [Pym, 1993]. AECMA Simplified English, for example,

• Imposes a fixed unambiguous lexicon.

- Prohibits potentially confusing syntactic constructs, such as gerunds or complex tenses.
- Imposes general stylistic guidelines, such as requesting that sentences be kept under 20 words if possible.

Content standards, such as the UK Army Equipment Support Publication rules, and the US Defense Department 2167A standard for software documentation, specify what information must be included in various documents (e.g., required maintenance procedures and safety information). Content standards are often less precise than writing standards, which can make them harder to automate.

NLG systems can be set up to automatically enforce the rules of any given writing standard, by programming an appropriate grammar and lexicon into the system. NLG systems can also be set up to obey content standards if the relevant information is available in the knowledge base, and print a warning message if it is not, provided that the standard is precise enough to be computationally interpretable.

2.2.4 Multilinguality

If the relevant domain and contextual models are language-independent, then the NLG system can be modified to produce texts in multiple output languages; NLG systems with multilingual output have in fact been built since the NLG field began [Hovy et al., 1992]. Producing multilingual output is not a trivial technical problem, but it is perhaps less complex for technical documentation than for other kinds of text, since

- Complex and difficult-to-translate syntax, lexemes, tenses, etc. are prohibited by most technical documentation writing standards (Section 2.2.3), and hence the system does not have to worry about correctly using such complex linguistic constructs in multiple languages.
- Achieving complex pragmatic and stylistic effects (e.g., making the reader laugh, or indirectly informing them of a fictional character's mental state) is not generally a goal of technical documentation; these are some of the most difficult things to get right in multilingual texts.

Multilingual output reduces document translation costs, but it probably will not eliminate it completely, since it is likely that human quality assurance and post-editing will still need to be performed for texts in all output languages.

2.2.5 Tailoring

The NLG approach allows a documentation text to be dynamically tailored to the context (e.g., the user's task, the user's expertise level, and the discourse history). Among the many kinds of tailoring that have been discussed in the literature are:

- Tailoring rhetorical [Paris, 1988] and syntactic [Bateman and Paris, 1989] structures according to a user's expertise.
- Choosing different lexical units (words) depending on the user's vocabulary and background knowledge [Reiter, 1991].

- Generating helpful responses that communicate the information the user needs to execute his or her current plan [Allen and Perrault, 1980].
- Choosing appropriate referring expressions for the current environment and discourse context (e.g., [Reiter and Dale, 1992]).

The research literature on this topic is extensive, and the above list is by no means complete.

2.2.6 Multimodality

Information can be communicated to (and from) the user with graphics as well as text; ideally, a document generation and presentation system should be able to interact with the user in whatever modality is most suitable for the task at hand. It is useful to distinguish between three kinds of multimodality:

Visual Formatting: Text can be much more effective if it is presented with appropriate visual formatting devices, such as bulletization, font changes, indentation, etc. An NLG system can produce visually-formatted text by treating such formatting devices as an additional 'resource' that can be used to communicate and structure information (e.g., see [Hovy and Arens, 1991]).

Hypertext Input: Text can be generated with hypertext-like links that allow a user to issue clarification, elaboration, and other kinds of followup questions simply by clicking his or her mouse on an appropriate word [Carenini *et al.*, 1993; Reiter *et al.*, 1992; Moore and Swartout, 1990]. This is obviously only useful in an on-line system.

Graphics Output: Much research has been done on generating diagrams (and other graphical presentations of data) and text from a single domain knowledge base, e.g., [Feiner and McKeown, 1990; Wahlster et al., 1993]. Graphics output requires a different low-level 'realisation/rendering' module than text output, but in some cases high-level content-oriented modules can be be used for both text and graphics output [Wahlster et al., 1993].

NLG techniques can be adopted to the problem of producing appropriate visual formatting and hypertext links, and to determining the content (although not the layout) of associated diagrams. When doing so, many of the advantages mentioned in the previous sections also apply to these multimedia 'extensions'. For example, AECMA Simplified English (Section 2.2.3) has standards for the use of visual formatting, which an NLG system can ensure are obeyed; hypertext links can be automatically updated if the text they point to is changed; and generated diagrams can be modified according to the user's goals [Roth et al., 1991].

With hypertext in particular, it is also possible that automatic generation of hypertext links may produce a more consistent and therefore easier to navigate hypertext network. This currently remains an interesting but unproven hypothesis; more research needs to be done on the acceptability of automatically generated hypertext networks.

It is also worth noting that NLG systems will be much more useful in practice if they can include visual formatting, hypertext links, and associated diagrams in their output. An NLG system that has no multimodal abilities may only be useful in a limited number of real-world document-generation applications.

2.3 Costs of NLG

Against the potential benefits must be weighed the costs of the NLG approach; NLG will, of course, only be worth using in real applications if its benefits outweigh its costs.

2.3.1 Increased CAD/KB creation time

In general design and other databases do not contain all the information needed to produce the relevant documentation, which means the designer/engineer will need to enter additional information into the design database or KR system when creating his or her design, in order to give the NLG system sufficient information. This extra information can, however, be used for many other purposes as well as document generation, including consistency, correctness, and completeness checks on the design. The cost of creating an appropriate model of a system in a CAD or KR framework should thus be evaluated in light of all the benefits it can potentially bring, not just document generation.

2.3.2 Fixed overhead for KB creation

The NLG system will also require knowledge bases that describe the sublanguage used in the documentation (which is often specified in a writing standard), and user and contextual models (if tailoring is being done). The per-application cost of building these knowledge bases will be decreased if the KBs can be shared among several applications, which is certainly possible to some degree (e.g., a grammar and lexicon for the AECMA Simplified English sublanguage can probably be used for most documents about aerospace systems).

2.3.3 Quality Assurance

Many organizations require documents to pass through a Quality Assurance (QA) procedure, which usually means being checked and perhaps edited by a separate group of people (this last procedure is sometimes called *post-editing*). It seems likely that computergenerated documents will also have to pass through this QA process, at least until users are confident that generated documents are both linguistically correct and a faithful rendition of the relevant knowledge base or database. Such checking and post-editing can cost significant amounts of money (e.g., see the costs reported in [Isabelle and Bourbeau, 1985] for post-editing in a machine translation project).

2.3.4 Computation Time

A certain amount of computer time will obviously be required to generate text using NLG techniques. While the monetary cost of computer time is fairly low (and getting lower), NLG systems must satisfy response-time constraints. In particular, interactive systems must be able to generate text within a few seconds in order to be useful. The response-time constraints on offline (batch) generation are looser, but they exist; a batch system that required several days to generate a document, for example, would probably be considered to be of limited usefulness.

2.4 Related Approaches

There is some overlap between generating documentation from a KB with NLG techniques, and using Knowledge-Based Machine Translation (KBMT) [Goodman and Nirenburg, 1991] techniques to translate documents. KBMT systems take an input document written in one language, process that document with an NL understanding system to produce an 'interlingua representation' that essentially contains the same information as a pure NLG system would hope to extract from its various knowledge and databases, and then use NLG to produce an output text from the 'interlingua'. From a technical perspective, the main difference between the KBMT and pure NLG approaches is that the former expects its input data to be expressed as NL text (in a different language), while the latter expects it to be present as design information in a database of some kind. From an applications perspective, it is worth noting that KBMT is generally viewed only as an aid to document translation, while NLG can be used to improve productivity throughout the document creation process.

3 IDAS

3.1 Goals

The IDAS project was a collaboration between the University of Edinburgh, Racal Instruments Ltd, Racal Research Ltd, and Inference Europe Ltd. Its goal was to build a better on-line documentation system for Racal ATEs (automatic test equipment); these are complex machines that are used to test potentially faulty circuit boards and determine if they are in fact malfunctioning. IDAS was intended to produce short on-line help messages (as opposed to complete paper documents) for three kinds of ATE users — operators, maintenance technicians, and programmers. Two systems were built:

- A hypertext documentation system which mainly relied on canned texts, but which used a domain KB to enhance the effectiveness of the system in various ways (somewhat similar to what [Hayes and Pepper, 1989] proposed, but did not implement). The system used object-oriented techniques to make the documents easier to update and otherwise modify.
- An NLG-based system which in addition to the above, attempted to generate the hypertext nodes (both text and links) from a domain KB and various contextual models.

Our group at the University of Edinburgh was primarily concerned with the second of these systems, and this is the one this paper focuses on.

In relation to the benefits described in Section 2.2, the initial goals of the IDAS NLG system could be characterized as follows:

Reduced cost: The main interest was in reducing document maintenance costs. ATE designs were not available in machine-readable databases, which meant that special KBs would need to be constructed for the NLG system, and this would probably cost more than simply directly authoring the documentation. The hope, though, was that once an NLG KB had been built, changes to reflect new ATE configurations, or upgraded ATE components, could be made easily in the KB, and this would reduce document maintenance costs (which are high, since ATEs are sold in many different

configurations, and are continually being upgraded to utilize the most up-to-date components).

Guaranteed consistency: This was a significant goal, especially for document maintenance. It was not possible to ensure consistency between the document and the design (since the design was not present in a CAD system), but it was hoped to increase the likelihood of consistency by making it more straightforward to update the documentation. With IDAS, the designer or technical author could update the documentation to reflect modified hardware simply by changing the KB to reflect the changes in the hardware, and all necessary documentation changes would then be made automatically.

Standards: Not emphasized.

Multilinguality: Not emphasized.

Tailoring: This was also important; a primary goal of the system was to be able to tailor its output to at least the three classes of users mentioned above (operators, maintenance technicians, programmers).

Multimodality: Hypertext was central to the project; some importance was also attached to being able to use canned graphics.

With regard to cost, the main concern was to reduce the cost of authoring the domain KB as much as possible; this was especially critical because it was not possible to extract any information from existing databases. Less emphasis was placed on reducing the cost of constructing fixed KBs, since it was felt that this cost could be amortised over several projects if IDAS was successful. The main computation constraint was that response texts should be generated in an acceptable time for an interactive system, i.e., a few seconds. Quality assurance was not originally regarded as a significant cost, although in retrospect it did have an impact, especially when considering the amount of tailoring that was desirable.

Some 'intermediate' techniques were developed which attempted to reduce domain-KB authoring costs at the expense of making some relatively unimportant benefits (e.g., multilingual generation) more difficult to achieve; these are discussed in Section 3.3.

3.2 The System

3.2.1 Input

The prototype IDAS NLG system built by Edinburgh is described in [Reiter et al., 1992]. The system's input is a 'question space' point that specifies five parameters

Basic question: The basic system supported seven questions: What-is-it, Where-is-it, What-are-its-parts, What-are-its-specs, What-is-its-purpose, What-does-it-connect-to, and How-do-I-perform-the-current-task. This list was modified for some of the non-ATE knowledge bases.

Component: The knowledge base contained a Part-Of component hierarchy of the target machine (the ATE in the main IDAS application), and queries could be issued for components at any level (from the ATE as a whole down to individual switches and levers).

User-Task: The user-task model told IDAS (in very rough terms) what kind of task the user was performing. The tasks were represented in an IS-A taxonomy.

User-Expertise: The user-expertise model told the system how much the user knew about the domain, and what some of his or her stylistic preferences were. The former included what technical vocabulary the user knew and what actions he or she could perform; the latter included, for example, whether contractions should be used (e.g. *it's* vs. *it is*).

Discourse: This told the system what objects were salient and hence could be referred to by simple noun phrases; this follows a much simplified version of the discourse model proposed by [Grosz and Sidner, 1986].

For example, the question space point (What-is-it, **DC-Power-Supply-23**, Operations, Skilled, {**VXI-Chassis-36**, **DC-Power-Supply-23**}) represents the query *What is the DC Power Supply?* when asked by a user of Skilled expertise who is engaged in an Operations task with the discourse context containing the objects **VXI-Chassis-36** and **DC-Power-Supply-23**. The NL Generation component would in this case produce the response:

It is a black Elgar AT-8000 DC power supply.

More example IDAS outputs, including ones that show the effect of changing the user-task or user-expertise models, are shown in Figure 1, and described in Section 3.2.4.

3.2.2 Knowledge Base

A KL-ONE [Brachman and Schmolze, 1985] type knowledge representation language called I1 was used as IDAS's knowledge representation system. I1 included support for IS-A and Part-Of hierarchies, default attribute inheritance (along the IS-A hierarchy), and automatic classification of new classes into the correct position in the IS-A taxonomy. In addition to the basic KR support functions, I1 also included a graphical browser that could be used to examine the knowledge base.

I1 proved surprisingly powerful and versatile; IDAS used it to represent many kinds of information, including:

- domain knowledge;
- grammatical rules;
- the lexicon;
- user task and expertise models;
- content-determination rules.

IDAS also used I1's classification and inheritance mechanisms to perform most of the reasoning needed to generate text [Reiter and Mellish, 1992]. The use of a single KR system for so many kinds of knowledge and so many kinds of reasoning is perhaps the most theoretically interesting feature of IDAS.

From a practical perspective, the use of an object-oriented KR system that supported taxonomies and inheritance made it significantly easier to create the necessary knowledge

bases. For example, the procedure for removing a circuit board from a VXI chassis (a type of backplane used in ATE systems) was only specified once, at the level VXI-chassis-board, and then inherited by all the specific boards (digital multimeter, counter timer, etc). Inheritance was also used within the linguistic knowledge bases; the definition of the grammatical rule for Imperative-Sentence, for example, was relatively short because it could inherit most of the necessary information from its parent class Sentence. It is unclear to what extent the presence of a default inheritance system added to the theoretical expressive power of I1, but it certainly proved to be a significant convenience to KB authors.

Most of the knowledge bases IDAS was used with were created by hand; our experience showed that a domain KB for a machine with 50 subcomponents could be created in a few weeks by someone familiar with the system and knowledgeable in AI techniques (Section 4.1.1). Two of our industrial collaborators, Inference Europe and Racal Instruments, developed a graphically-oriented KB authoring tool that could be used by people who were less familiar with AI techniques. This tool, for example, used the terms parts stores and family trees, which are standard Racal terminology, instead of IS-A taxonomy and Part-Of hierarchy (AI terminology); it also attempted to use some of Racal's standard presentation techniques for describing 'parts stores' and 'family trees'.

Unfortunately, the Inference/Racal authoring tool was not developed until fairly late in the project, and therefore it has not yet been used to construct a non-trivial IDAS knowledge base. There was also a feeling that the authoring tool would be more useful if it could be used to build up a general purpose design description that could be used for other tasks as well as document generation. As this paper is being written, further research is being considered to extend the authoring tool in this manner, and to investigate how it would best fit into the Racal design and documentation environment.

3.2.3 Operations

IDAS, like many other applied NLG systems [Reiter, 1994], generates texts in three stages:

Content Determination: The basic-question, component, and user-task components of the question-space tuple are used to pick a *content-determination rule*. This rule specifies:

- The basic structure of the response, i.e., the *schema* used to build it (see [McKeown, 1985], although our schemas have a somewhat different structure than McKeown's).
- The information from the knowledge-base that will be included in the response text.
- Hypertext followup buttons that will be displayed at the bottom of the response text. The idea is that information that is immediately relevant should be presented in the response text, while information that may possibly be relevant should be accessible by clicking on a followup button.

We used a rule-based content-determination system in IDAS, because we believed rules would be relatively easy for domain experts to create [Reiter and Mellish, 1993]. The rule-based system was also very fast, which was important in ensuring acceptable response times.

Sentence Planning: ¹ An SPL [Kasper, 1989] expression (i.e., a semantic form) is constructed from the output of the content-determination system. This process is sensitive to the user-expertise and discourse components of the question-space tuple, and involves, in particular:

- aggregation [Dalianis and Hovy, 1993], ie deciding how many sentences to use, and which information should be conveyed by each sentence. This is currently done fairly simplistically; a more complex aggregation and optimisation module was developed as an MSc project [Pake, 1992], but it was not reliable enough to be used in the main version of the system.
- Generating referring expressions. Pronouns were generated by a simplified version of the centering algorithm [Grosz et al., 1983]; definite noun phrases were generated with the algorithm described in [Reiter and Dale, 1992].
- Choosing appropriate open-class lexical items (words). This was based on the ideas presented in [Reiter, 1991], and involved, for example, trying to use basic-level terms [Rosch, 1978] whenever possible.

Surface Realization: The SPL term is converted into a surface form, i.e., a set of words with formatting and hypertext annotations. This process involves:

- Syntactic processing. The IDAS grammar is represented as a series of I1 classes, and classification is used to apply the grammar to the SPL produced by the sentence planner [Reiter and Mellish, 1992; Mellish, 1991]. The IDAS grammar is small when compared to, for example, ISI's NIGEL [Mann, 1983] grammar or Elhadad's SURGE grammar [Elhadad, 1992], but it is adequate for IDAS's needs (remember that writing standards for technical documentation generally prohibit complex syntactic structures in any case).
- Morphology. Morphological processing in IDAS is again done with classification; some of the specific rules are taken from [Ritchie et al., 1992]. A morphological processor for Romanian (which is much more complex in morphological terms than English) was also built within the IDAS/II framework [Cristea, 1993].
- Post-processing. This module handles capitalizing sentence-initial words, inserting the right spacing around punctuation (e.g., My dog (Spotty) is here, not My dog (Spotty) is here), and other such details of the written form of English.

IDAS'S NL generation system was only designed to be able to generate small pieces of text (a few sentences, a paragraph at most). This was because IDAS'S hypertext system enabled users to dynamically select the paragraphs they wish to read, i.e., perform their own high-level text planning [Levine et al., 1991], thereby eliminating the need for the generation system to perform such planning.

3.2.4 Example

Figure 1 shows several complete IDAS texts (including hypertext followup buttons). The texts are shown in a simple hypertext display system developed at Edinburgh; a more

¹In some earlier papers, we referred to this process as 'text planning' instead of 'sentence planning'. We use the term 'sentence planning' in this paper because we believe it is more consistent with the terminology used by other researchers [Reiter, 1994].

Figure 1: Example Screen Dump

sophisticated hypertext delivery system was built by our industrial collaborators. The initial query was What-are-its-parts, asked about the complete ATE by a Skilled expertise person performing an Operations task; this produces the text shown in Response 1. The underlined part names (which are in fact referring expressions) are all mousable, as is ATE in the title question and the buttons on the bottom line. Response 2 shows how the system would respond to the same query issues under a Naive user-expertise model. Note in particular that the components described in Response 1 as the DC power supply and the mains control unit are described in Response 2 as the black power supply and the silver power supply; this is a consequence of the fact that Naive users are not expected to have as rich a technical vocabulary as Skilled users.

Response 3 was produced by clicking on test head in Response 1, and selecting Whatis-it from a pop-up menu of basic questions; this response was generated using the same user-task, user-expertise, and discourse-in-focus question-space components as Response 1. The What-Operations-Rule content rule used to generate Response 3 specifies that Where-isit and How-do-I-Use-it should be added as hypertext followups, so WHERE and USE buttons are presented below the text. Other questions, e.g., What-are-its-parts, can be asked by clicking on test head in the title question, and selecting from the pop-up menu. The MENU button allows the user to change the contextual models (user-task, user-expertise, etc). Response 4 shows the response for the same query under a Repair-Part task. More information is given in the response text (for example, a reorder part-number is included in the Repair-Part response but not the Operations response), and also more followup buttons are created (e.g., SPECS (specifications) are assumed to potentially be of interest to a maintenance engineer, but not to an operator).

Response 5 was obtained by clicking on WHERE; it answers Where is the test head? Response 6 comes from clicking on the USE button in Response 3; it is a response to How do I use the test head? In this response the underlined nouns test head, ITA mechanism, and ITA are all linked to pop-up menus of basic questions about these components, while the verbs unlock, mount, and lock are all linked to How-do-I-perform queries for the relevant action. Clicking on unlock produces Response 7, which presents a step-by-step decomposition of the action of unlocking the ITA mechanism. Response 8 was obtained by clicking on lever in Response 7, and selecting What-is-it from the pop-up menu.

Figure 2 shows a trace of IDAS generating Response 8 in Figure 1. The initial query can be textually represented as *What is the lever?*, but is represented internally as a Whatis-it query about the test-head's locking-lever under the context of an Operations task undertaken by a Skilled user; the default discourse context is used.

This input triggers the What-Operations-Rule content-determination rule. This specifies that text should be structured by the Identify-schema (which basically means a single is a sentence will be generated), with no bulletization being performed, and with no ab-

Figure 2: A Trace of Response 8 in Figure 1

breviations allowed (e.g., digital multimeter would be used instead of DMM). The text should directly inform the user that Llever-test-head12 has the property (colour black), and Where-is-it should be presented as a hypertext followup button.²

This output is given to the sentence planner, which generates the SPL shown in Figure 2.³ Note that the referring-expression module has decided to pronominalize the subject (i.e., :DOMAIN filler), based on its discourse model and centering rules, and that the lexical choice module has decided to use the noun *locking lever* for Llever-test-head12, instead of just *lever*.

The final stage is converting the SPL into a surface form, i.e., actual text; the output of the surface realisation module is *It is a black locking lever*.

Each of the responses in Figure 1 was produced in less than two seconds on a SUN IPX (Sparc 2) workstation, measured from the initial click on a hypertext followup button to the appearance of the response box on the user's screen. Almost all IDAS responses are in fact produced within two seconds, and this seems acceptable to users.

3.3 Intermediate Techniques

Since not all of the benefits listed in Section 2.2 were deemed important in IDAS, we decided to search for generation techniques that 'cheated' in certain ways and hence sacrificed some of the benefits listed in Section 2.2, but in return lowered some of the costs listed in Section 2.3; if we could sacrifice benefits that were unimportant in IDAS and as a result decrease costs that were deemed quite important, then this would make the system more useful and valuable. [Reiter and Mellish, 1993] describes our search for such *intermediate techniques* in more detail; in this paper, we will just describe one such technique, the use of *hybrid action representations*, to give readers a feel for what an intermediate technique consists of, and how it is motivated.

One of IDAS's tasks is to tell the user how to perform actions (e.g., Response 6 in Figure 1). IDAS can perform this in a 'deep' manner by generating text from a case-frame representation of the action to be performed; it is, however, impractical to expect domain experts or technical authors, who in general have minimal experience with AI techniques, to create such case frames by hand. Such authors find writing text easier than building case frames, so the ideal solution would be to have the authors write text and then convert this text into case frames with an NL understanding system. Given the state of the art in NL understanding, it is difficult to reliably and unambiguously translate arbitrary texts into

²What-Operations-Rule was also used to generate Response 3 in Figure 1. The difference between the information conveyed in Responses 3 and 8, and the followup buttons shown, is due to the presence/absence of knowledge in the knowledge base; for example, the USE button is present in Response 3 but not in Response 8 because the knowledge-base does not have information about how people use levers.

³Our version of SPL differs from the original PENMAN version [Penman Natural Language Group, 1989].

IDAS's internal case-frame notation, but some processing can certainly be done. This has led to the notion of 'hybrid' action representations which mix proper knowledge-base structures with canned-text fragments; the former represent pieces of the input text that the analysis system can confidently analyze, while the latter are used for unanalyzable portions of the text.

More specifically, we support two hybrid representations in IDAS: canned text with embedded KB references (EKR), and case frames with textual case fillers (TCF). In the EKR representation, references to machine components and other KB entities can be embedded in a canned-text action representation; the generation system then generates appropriate referring expressions for these references when it processes the EKR form (this is somewhat similar to the system described by [Springer et al., 1991]). In the TCF representation, the IDAS case-frame representation is used, but case fillers are allowed to be canned text; these are then inserted into the generated sentences in appropriate positions. Examples of these representations are:

Canned-text: Remove any connections to the board

EKR: Carefully slide [Board21] out along its guides

TCF: REMOVE(actor=User, actee=Board21, source=Instrument-Rack1, manner="gently")

Case-frame: PUT(actor=User, actee=Board21, destination=Faulty-Board-Tray3)

Along with our industrial collaborators and an MSc student, we have developed authoring tools that can produce EKR or TCF representations from textual input; one of these tools also has some support for graphical authoring of actions [Marshall, 1992]. Entering an EKR or TCF action specification with one of these tools (or indeed by hand) is usually quicker than manually building up a case-frame structure; perhaps more importantly, it also requires less detailed knowledge of how information is represented in IDAS and I1. The cost of using these techniques is that some of the potential NLG benefits described in Section 2.2 are lost. In particular, multilingual generation is impossible, and standards conformance cannot be guaranteed in the canned portions of the representation. On the other hand, a significant amount of tailoring can still be done in the non-canned portions of the text; consistency between the design in the KB and the documentation text can still largely be guaranteed; and reduced-costs may still be the case for document creation and maintenance. Some multimodality can also be introduced, e.g., hypertext links can still be automatically added to referring expressions.

Thus, hybrid action representations reduce the cost of creating a domain KB for an NLG system, at the price of sacrificing some potential benefits (most notably multilingual generation and guaranteed standards conformance). Hybrid action representations are still superior to canned-text, however, since they allow some amount of tailoring, make it easier to enforce consistency within a document and between a document and a machine-readable design database, allow hypertext links to be automatically added to texts, etc. Whether hybrid action representations are appropriate in a particular NLG application depends on the goals of that application, and in particular which of the potential benefits of NLG are felt to be most important.

Some of the other intermediate techniques we developed in IDAS are described in [Reiter and Mellish, 1993]. The basic idea is the same as presented above; the goal of intermediate

Figure 3: Bilingual System

techniques is to reduce the costs of using NLG by sacrificing NLG benefits that are not regarded as important in the current application.

3.4 Multilingual IDAS

Ilona Bellos, an MSc student, built a variant of IDAS that could produce output in both French and English [Bellos, 1992], if no hybrid action representations were used in the knowledge base (Section 3.3). A screen dump of the output of her system is shown in Figure 3. This shows three IDAS responses (in a knowledge base documenting Renault cars instead of ATEs) in both French and English; the French responses are above the corresponding English responses. The user switches between languages simply by changing the user-expertise model; this loads in an appropriate lexicon and grammar, and also sets some flags for the sentence planner. Colin Dick, another MSc student, worked on a Turkish version of IDAS; and Dan Cristea, a visitor from Romania, built a morphology module for Romanian within the IDAS framework [Cristea, 1993].

Such a multilingual adaptation of an NLG system is not unusual; as Rösner points out [Rösner, 1992], it has been common practice since NLG research began for generators to be adapted to produce output in multiple languages.

4 Evaluation

4.1 User Trials

We were not able to perform any evaluation of IDAS using the ATE knowledge base, for various reasons. We were, however, able to perform some user-effectiveness trials with another knowledge base that we built, which described a racing bicycle; the results of this evaluation are reported in this section. Only a small number of people (3) were tested in the trials, so the results should be considered as suggestive rather than statistically significant.

4.1.1 The Experiment

Three subjects, none of whom had much previous knowledge of bicycles, were asked to carry out the evaluation exercise. The exercise had three parts:

- 1. Subjects were given instructions on how to use IDAS and shown how to navigate around the question space.
- 2. Subjects were asked to answer 15 questions about the bicycle, using information obtained from IDAS. Example questions include:

- What is the cost of the front brake cable?
- Imagine that you are selling this bicycle to someone who doesn't know how to use the gear levers. Use IDAS to find out how this is done, and then explain this in your own words to the customer.
- True or false: the front wheel has fewer spokes than the back wheel?

Subjects were timed, and all queries they issued to IDAS were recorded.

3. Subjects were asked to complete a questionnaire that asked for both general opinions about IDAS and specific suggestions for how it might be improved.

The bicycle knowledge base, incidentally, described about 50 components of the bicycle, and was constructed (by hand) in about two weeks by a person who was familiar with IDAS but had not previously constructed any IDAS knowledge bases.

4.1.2 Analysis of Subjects' Performance

The general result of the evaluation exercise was encouraging; out of 45 responses in all, there were only two mistakes. One involved a misinterpretation of the phrase It is a Cinelli Super Record saddle; the subject thought that Cinelli Super Record was the name of the manufacturer, whereas in fact Cinelli was the name of the manufacturer while Super Record was the saddle's model name. The other mistake involved an incorrect description of how the gear levers worked; the relevant information was in this case being communicated unambiguously by IDAS, but it probably would have been easier to understand if accompanied by a diagram.

It was also encouraging that users managed to navigate through IDAS's 'hyperspace' very efficiently, despite not having much experience with the system. Of the 132 queries issued to IDAS by the users,

- 57 (43%) conveyed information needed to respond to a question.
- 29 (22%) were intermediate nodes that a user had to pass through in order to get to an information-presenting node.
- 27 (20%) were unnecessary and did not contribute to responding to a question.
- 19 (15%) were repeats of a previous query.

Subjects were not asked to attempt to minimize the number of queries, and some of the 'unnecessary' queries were in fact due to subjects randomly browsing through the knowledge base. An analysis of the remaining unnecessary queries suggests that many were due to subjects being unfamiliar with IDAS in general and the bicycle knowledge base in particular; experienced IDAS users would presumably be more efficient in their use of the system.

Subjects in some cases went down a wrong path in hyperspace when attempting to get information, but in all cases managed to quickly recover from this. Subjects were also able to combine information from several IDAS queries in a single multisentence response; this supports the claim (see [Levine et al., 1991; Reiter et al., 1992], and Section 3.2.3 of this paper) that it is sufficient for IDAS to generate short responses, and rely on the user to be able to put them together as necessary.

In summary, there is clearly room for improvement in both the way IDAS uses text to present information, and in its use of hypertext mechanisms. Nevertheless, the system's performance seems to be quite reasonable. The fact that subjects answered 95% of the questions correctly suggests that in the great majority of cases IDAS is presenting information in a clear and accessible manner, and the fact that only one-third of the queries were unnecessary indicates that subjects in most cases managed to navigate around IDAS's hyperspace without excessive difficulty.

4.1.3 Subject's Comments

After completing the exercise, subjects were asked for comments and suggestions about IDAS. In general, the comments were quite favorable and supportive. More specifically,

- There were several complaints about the details of the IDAS hypertext interface (use of mouse buttons, positioning of windows, etc). These problems could easily be fixed by building a better user interface.
- Some subjects wanted to be able to ask more questions (e.g., how does it work?).
- Subjects commented that IDAS's texts were very concise, but in general agreed that this was appropriate in the context of helping users perform specific tasks (as opposed to teaching them general information about a bicycle).
- Subjects felt that finding information by searching through IDAS's question-space (hyperspace) was quicker and easier than finding it in paper documentation.
- Subjects commented that having some graphics output (in particular, a picture of the bicycle) would have been useful (the version of IDAS used in the evaluation trial was not able to display diagrams of any kind).

4.2 Industrial Reaction

In addition to the quantitative user-evaluation trials, we also solicited informal reactions and comments from our industrial collaborators, and from interested people in other industrial R&D establishments. Although this is not as rigorous as the data from our user-evaluation trials, it is valuable in helping to answer broader questions, including in particular what potential benefits of NL generation are most likely to be useful in the real world.

These reactions can perhaps best be summarized by going over the benefits described in Section 2.2. The following comments are reconstructed from many comments made by many people over the course of many meetings and demonstrations; we are not claiming that they represent anyone's opinion except our own.

4.2.1 Reduced Cost

In retrospect, we underestimated the cost of building a knowledge base that can support NLG. This is not a cheap endeavour, and it may be unrealistic to hope that its cost will be less than the cost of simply writing documentation directly. Even if some information can be extracted from an existing database or knowledge base (e.g., a CAD system), additional information will almost certainly be required for NL generation, and entering it will not be

cheap. No existing CAD system that we are aware of, for example, includes the kind of design rationale information that an NLG system would need in order to be able to respond to a What-is-its-purpose question (which was one of IDAS's basic questions).

It may, however, be more realistic to expect that the NLG approach can reduce the cost of document maintenance, even if it does not reduce the cost of initial document creation; and document maintenance can be a larger proportion of total life-cycle cost than initial document production. By document maintenance, we primarily mean the cost of updating documentation when the hardware being documented changes, not the cost of fixing spelling and grammatical errors (Section 2.2.1). Once the initial machine design has been entered into the CAD or KR systems, many of the most common changes to that design (e.g., a new configuration, or an upgraded component) can be made fairly easily, and in a manner that can be well supported by authoring tools such as the one developed by our industrial collaborators (Section 3.2.2); making changes in this manner and then regenerating the documentation may well be cheaper than revising the documentation by hand.

Many of the enhanced maintainability advantages of the IDAS NLG system, however, were also present in the object-oriented canned-text system, which also supported creating new configurations and upgrading components in existing configurations. The maintainability advantages of the NLG version of IDAS over the canned-text system may thus not be that high, at least in the ATE domain. So, while maintainability is extremely important and should be kept in mind for all documentation systems, it is hard to claim that it is a particular benefit of NLG systems; most of the benefits we observed could be obtained simply by building an 'object-oriented' knowledge base that can represent Is-A and Part-Of hierarchies of components, and then associating canned texts with the objects represented in this KB.

Perhaps a more promising way of justifying the expense of creating a knowledge base is to ensure that the design knowledge it contains is used in many ways, not just for document generation. If knowledge base authoring is thought of merely as a replacement for document authoring, then indeed it might seem to require unreasonable resources. But if the knowledge base + NLG architecture is presented as a solution to a wider need to design, reason about, and present products, and if this can be integrated with the normal product development process, then it looks much more attractive. In a follow-on project to IDAS [Levine and Mellish, 1994], we are hoping to evolve our authoring tool into a general requirements capture tool to be used by engineers right from the start of the design process. In such a situation we hope that the cost of a small amount of extra authoring (largely collaborative) will be amply repaid by advantages gained by a number of sections of the company.

Another point that was raised in our discussions was that it was desirable to have a single tool capture both the 'normal' design information, and the 'extra' information needed for NLG or other knowledge-based processing. This may require the design engineer to do more work than if he or she just enters 'design' information, and someone else enters 'documentation-related' information, but the total amount of effort will be less with an integrated tool, and there will be far fewer opportunities for inconsistencies. Also, if the knowledge base is being used to support many kinds of reasoning, it may be hard in any case to make a clear distinction between 'design' and 'extra' information.

In summary, we would now be cautious about claiming that generating documentation from a knowledge base will reduce direct document-creation costs if a special knowledgebase has to be created for the NLG system. Cost-reduction is perhaps only likely if most of the information needed for NLG can be extracted from information that is being used for other purposes; and cost-reduction may be more likely for document maintenance than initial document creation.

4.2.2 Consistency

Ensuring that a document is in fact consistent with a design is a very important benefit to industry, and one that we did not fully appreciate when we started IDAS. It is difficult to ensure that the design described in a human-readable text document is the same as the design described in a machine-readable design database, and this problem becomes especially severe when a document is being updated (e.g., to reflect changes in the hardware), and the document updater is not the original document author. Furthermore, inaccuracies in documentation are very worrisome to companies, because they can cause customers to become annoyed and consider switching to another supplier, and because they may result in a company being legally liable if customers misuse a product. Our discussions suggested that many companies might be willing to accept higher costs for document production if the resultant documents had fewer inaccuracies, and that increased document accuracy is in fact one of the most important potential benefits of using NLG to produce technical documentation. Indeed, for some applications, accuracy is much more important than the quality of the text.

4.2.3 Guaranteed Conformance to Standards

Ensuring that a document conforms to relevant standards is another important potential benefit of NLG that we did not initially appreciate, and that proved to be extremely important to many of the industrial people we talked to. Writing standards in particular can seem unnatural to human authors (e.g., AECMA Simplified English [AECMA, 1986] prohibits Test the power supply and requires Do a test on the power supply instead), and training authors to obey the standards can be a non-trivial task. With NLG systems, however, the relevant standard can simply be incorporated into the system's grammar, lexicon, and planning rules, and then all output will be guaranteed to meet the standard. Indeed, it is probably easier to generate Simplified English than full English, because many of the syntactic, lexical, and other choices that have to be made when generating full English are already specified in the Simplified English standard, and hence the NLG system does not have to worry about them.

One thing that was clear from talking to our industrial contacts, incidentally, is that no one wanted systems that produced linguistically complex output. All potential users we talked to preferred to have technical documentation presented as simply as possible; the use of complex syntactic or lexical constructions, which has been the focus of much academic research, was a minus, not a plus, as far as these people were concerned.

4.2.4 Multilinguality

Producing documents in several languages from a single domain KB is certainly technically possible [Hovy et al., 1992], and indeed a bilingual French/English version of IDAS was built by one of our MSc students (Section 3.4). Perhaps the main disadvantage of multilingual generation (in addition to the need to create multiple lexicons and grammars) is that it disallows the use of hybrid action representations and similar otherwise-useful intermediate techniques (Section 3.3). All knowledge to be communicated must be properly encoded in

the underlying deep representation, and this can make the domain KB authoring task more difficult.

The level of interest in multilingual generation varied greatly among our industrial contacts. Some people (especially those working for firms that produced consumer goods) thought this was potentially very valuable. People working for aerospace and other heavy industrial firms, however, often felt that a better way to reach international customers was to produce documents in Simplified English [AECMA, 1986] and similar English dialects that are designed to be easily readable by non-native speakers. The cost of generating documents in multiple languages is not zero, after all, even if a proper knowledge base exists, because it will probably still be necessary for human editors and quality assurance personnel to check the translated documents before they get sent out to customers.

There are also cases where multilingual output is required by law. This indeed is part of the justification of the FoG weather-report generation system [Goldberg et al., 1994] (weather reports in Canada must be distributed in both French and English).

4.2.5 Tailoring

One of the initial goals of IDAS was to be able to tailor its output to different kinds of users, including operators, maintenance engineers, and programmers. There has been a substantial amount of research in user-tailoring in the NLG community, including for example [Paris, 1988; McCoy, 1988; Wilensky et al., 1988; Breuker, 1990]. Following this research and incorporating some ideas of our own, we built into IDAS separate user-task, user-expertise, and discourse models; as a result, in some cases perhaps 50 different responses could potentially be produced for one query, depending on the value of these contextual parameters.

Unfortunately, it turned out that such a high degree of variability was *not* desirable for our industrial collaborators, because it made QA (quality assurance) more difficult and expensive. All responses generated by our system would need to be examined by the QA department before our system could be sent to customers, and having 50 variants of a response made that task 50 times more difficult. A small number of variations was thus perhaps useful, but utilizing a rich fine-grained contextual model to produce many response variants was definitely *not* desirable.

We also observed that IDAS users often used the hypertext followup mechanism to clarify terms or actions they did not understand; they simply clicked on unfamiliar words or actions, and in most cases got sufficient information from the followup text to enable them to continue with their original task (even though IDAS hypertext followups were not originally designed or intended to serve as a glossary or term-explanation mechanism). Many commercial on-line help systems of course use hypertext in this way; the user clicks on a word he or she doesn't understand, and a glossary entry or new help window appears. The hypertext approach both gives the user more direct control over what he or she sees, and also avoids the QA costs of the text-modifying tailoring that we performed in IDAS. In many applications, hypertext mechanisms may turn out to be the most appropriate technique for supporting users with different tasks and expertise levels.

One final point is that most of the other people from industry whom we talked to (besides our direct industrial collaborators) did not seem very interested in tailoring responses, perhaps because they were more interested in cutting the life-cycle costs of documentation (e.g., including maintenance, translation, and editing for standards conformance) than in improving documentation effectiveness.

4.2.6 Multimodality

Both our discussions and our user-effectiveness trials emphasized that any useful technical documentation generation system *must* be able to produce output that includes visual formatting, hypertext links, and diagrams whenever appropriate (and when allowed by the medium). A system that generates 'technical documentation' that consists only of a sequence of words and sentences may be an interesting academic exercise, but it is unlikely to be useful in real applications.

IDAS did produce hypertext; this was one of its original design goals. Indeed, our experience has been that if one is going to all the trouble to generate NL text from a knowledge base, adding hypertext followup links to this text is a relatively low-cost increment to the basic NLG system [Reiter et al., 1992]. IDAS can also use some visual formatting devices; this capability is not as extensive as it should be, but the proper use of such formatting devices is an under-researched area in NLG.

The Edinburgh IDAS system is not able to perform any kind of graphic generation, although one version of the system can display canned bitmaps in response to certain queries. This is a definite weakness of the system, and an automatic technical-documentation generation system that is used in real applications may need to possess more sophisticated graphic abilities. There has been some research on combining text and graphics generation (e.g., [Feiner and McKeown, 1990; Wahlster et al., 1993]), but this work has tended to stress very 'principled' ways of doing this, which may be too costly (in terms of both the amount of domain knowledge and the amount of compute time required) to be practical in realistically sized systems; further research probably needs to be done on 'cheaper' ways of combining text and graphics generation.

5 Lessons Learned

Perhaps the most important lessons we have learned from IDAS are:

- Document production should as much as possible utilize information in existing design (and other) databases; if more information is needed, it should ideally be useful for other purposes in addition to document generation (e.g., consistency checks). The capture of the necessary information, and the production of documents, should be an integral part of the design environment.
- The output text should be kept as linguistically simple as possible, with relevant writing and content standards being followed. Graphical mechanisms (including visual formatting and hypertext input as well as diagram production) should be used when they are appropriate.
- Automatic document generation is probably best justified in terms of guaranteeing consistency of documents with the actual designs, guaranteeing that relevant standards are followed, and simplifying the process of updating documents to reflect changes in the documented hardware. It may be more difficult to justify automatic document generation on the basis of reducing the costs of initially creating a document.

• Multimodal techniques (such as automatic insertion of hypertext links) hold promise as a way of increasing the effectiveness of generated documentation; user-tailoring may be less promising, unless a way can be found to solve the quality-assurance problem.

In conclusion, we believe that there is great potential in using natural-language generation to automate the process of producing technical documentation, if the developers of such systems have a clear idea of the costs and benefits of NLG, and hence of the niches in which it might most usefully be applied. The technology is not a panacea that will instantly cut document-production costs to zero, but when used appropriately it has great promise in reducing the total life-cycle costs of documentation, in making documentation more accurate and effective, and in enabling design engineers to spend more of their time on designing and less on documenting.

Acknowledgements

The IDAS project was partially funded by UK SERC grant GR/F/36750 and UK DTI grant IED 4/1/1072, and we are grateful to SERC and DTI for their support of this work. We would especially like to thank the IDAS industrial collaborators — Inference Europe, Ltd.; Racal Instruments, Ltd.; and Racal Research, Ltd. — for all the help they have given us in performing this research. We would also like to thank the many interested people from other industrial organizations (including Andersen Consulting, British Aerospace, COWIconsult, Dassault Aviation, General Motors, and Sun Microsystems) who have spent significant amounts of time discussing IDAS and natural-language generation with us; the first author would also like to thank the people at CoGenTex (especially Richard Kittredge and Tanya Korelsky) for their comments and advice. We are also very grateful for the effort contributed by the visitors and MSc students who worked on IDAS, including Ilona Bellos, Dan Cristea, Colin Dick, Sam Marshall, and Michael Pake. It goes without saying, of course, that all opinions expressed in this paper are our own, and we are solely responsible for any errors or mistakes in the text.

References

[AECMA, 1986] AECMA. A guide for the preparation of aircraft maintenance documentation in the international aerospace maintenance language, 1986. Available from BDC Publishing Services, Slack Lane, Derby, UK.

[Allen and Perrault, 1980] James Allen and C. Raymond Perrault. Analyzing intention in utterances. *Artificial Intelligence*, 15:143–178, 1980.

[Bateman and Paris, 1989] John Bateman and Cecile Paris. Phrasing a text in terms the user can understand. In *Proceedings of the 11th International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI-1989)*, volume 2, pages 1511–1517, 1989.

[Bellos, 1992] Ilona Bellos. Towards a multilingual IDAS. Master's thesis, University of Edinburgh, Department of Artificial Intelligence, 1992.

[Brachman and Schmolze, 1985] Ronald Brachman and James Schmolze. An overview of the KL-ONE knowledge representation system. *Cognitive Science*, 9:171–216, 1985.

- [Breuker, 1990] Joost Breuker, editor. EUROHELP: Developing Intelligent Help Systems. European Commission, 1990. Final report on the P280 ESPRIT project EUROHELP.
- [Carenini et al., 1993] Giuseppe Carenini, Fabio Pianesi, Marco Ponzi, and Oliviero Stock. Natural language generation and hypertext access. Applied Artificial Intelligence, 7:135–164, 1993.
- [Cristea, 1993] Dan Cristea. Romanian morphological generation through classification, 1993. Unpublished manuscript. Department of Computer Science, University 'A1.I.Cuza' of Iasi, Romania.
- [Dalianis and Hovy, 1993] Hercules Dalianis and Eduard Hovy. Aggregation in natural language generation. In *Proceedings of the Fourth European Workshop on Natural Language Generation*, pages 67–78, 1993.
- [Elhadad, 1992] Michael Elhadad. Using Argumentation to Control Lexical Choice: A Functional Unification Implementation. PhD thesis, Columbia University, 1992.
- [Feiner and McKeown, 1990] Steve Feiner and Kathleen McKeown. Coordinating text and graphics in explanation generation. In *Proceedings of the 8th National Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI-1990)*, volume 1, pages 442–449, 1990.
- [Goldberg et al., 1994] Eli Goldberg, Norbert Driedger, and Richard Kittredge. Using natural-language processing to produce weather forecasts. IEEE Expert, 9(2):45–53, 1994.
- [Goodman and Nirenburg, 1991] Kenneth Goodman and Sergei Nirenburg, editors. *The KBMT Project: A Case Study in Knowledge-Based Machine Translation*. Morgan Kaufmann, 1991.
- [Grosz and Sidner, 1986] Barbara Grosz and Candace Sidner. Attention, intention, and the structure of discourse. *Computational Linguistics*, 12:175–206, 1986.
- [Grosz et al., 1983] Barbara Grosz, Aravind Joshi, and Scott Weinstein. Providing a unified account of definite noun phrases in discourse. In *Proceedings of the 21st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL-1983)*, pages 44–50, Cambridge, Mass, 1983.
- [Hayes and Pepper, 1989] Phil Hayes and Jeff Pepper. Towards an integrated maintenance advisor. In *Hypertext 1989 Proceedings*, pages 119–127, Pittsburgh, 1989.
- [Hovy and Arens, 1991] Eduard Hovy and Yigal Arens. Automatic generation of formatted text. In *Proceedings of Ninth National Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI-1991)*, pages 92–97, 1991.
- [Hovy et al., 1992] Eduard Hovy, Richard Kittredge, Christian Matthiessen, Sergei Nirenburg, and Dietmar Rösner. Multilinguality and generation. In R. Dale et al., editors, Aspects of Automated Natural Language Generation: Proceedings of the Sixth International Natural Language Generation Workshop, pages 293–308. Springer-Verlag, 1992. Number 587 in Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence.

- [Isabelle and Bourbeau, 1985] Pierre Isabelle and Laurent Bourbeau. TAUM-AVIATION: Its technical features and some experimental results. *Computational Linguistics*, 11:18–27, 1985.
- [Kasper, 1989] Robert Kasper. A flexible interface for linking applications to Penman's sentence generator. In *Proceedings of the 1989 DARPA Speech and Natural Language Workshop*, pages 153–158, Philadelphia, 1989.
- [Levine and Mellish, 1994] John Levine and Chris Mellish. CORECT: Combining CSCW with natural language generation for collaborative requirements capture. In *Proceedings* of the Seventh International Workshop on Natural Language Generation (INLGW-1994), pages 236–239, 1994.
- [Levine et al., 1991] John Levine, Alison Cawsey, Chris Mellish, Lawrence Poynter, Ehud Reiter, Paul Tyson, and John Walker. IDAS: Combining hypertext and natural language generation. In *Proceedings of the Third European Workshop on Natural Language Generation*, pages 55–62, Innsbruck, Austria, 1991.
- [Mann, 1983] William Mann. An overview of the NIGEL text generation grammar. In Proceedings of the 21st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL-1983), pages 79–84, 1983.
- [Marshall, 1992] Sam Marshall. The IDAS action authoring tool. Master's thesis, University of Edinburgh, Department of Artificial Intelligence, 1992.
- [McCoy, 1988] Kathleen McCoy. Reasoning on a highlighted user model to respond to misconceptions. *Computational Linguistics*, 14(3):52–63, 1988.
- [McKeown, 1985] Kathleen McKeown. Text Generation. Cambridge University Press, 1985.
- [Mellish, 1991] Chris Mellish. Approaches to realization in natural language generation. In E. Klein and F. Veltman, editors, *Natural Language and Speech*. Springer-Verlag, 1991.
- [Moore and Swartout, 1990] Johanna Moore and William Swartout. Pointing: A way toward explanation dialogue. In *Proceedings of the Eighth National Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI-1990)*, pages 457–464, 1990.
- [Pake, 1992] Michael Pake. An optimiser for an SPL based text generator. Master's thesis, University of Edinburgh, Department of Artificial Intelligence, 1992.
- [Paris, 1988] Cecile Paris. Tailoring object descriptions to the user's level of expertise. Computational Linguistics, 14(3):64–78, 1988.
- [Penman Natural Language Group, 1989] Penman Natural Language Group. The Penman user guide. Technical report, Information Sciences Institute, Marina del Rey, CA 90292, 1989.
- [Pym, 1993] Peter Pym. Perkins engines and publications. In *Proc. of Symposium on Technology and Language in Europe 2000: The UK Perspective*, London, January 1993.
- [Reiter, 1991] Ehud Reiter. A new model of lexical choice for nouns. Computational Intelligence, 7(4):240–251, 1991.

- [Reiter, 1994] Ehud Reiter. Has a consensus NL Generation architecture appeared, and is it psycholinguistically plausible? In *Proceedings of the Seventh International Workshop on Natural Language Generation (INLGW-1994)*, pages 163–170, 1994.
- [Reiter and Dale, 1992] Ehud Reiter and Robert Dale. A fast algorithm for the generation of referring expressions. In *Proceedings of the Fourteenth International Conference on Computational Linguistics (COLING-1992)*, volume 1, pages 232–238, 1992.
- [Reiter and Mellish, 1992] Ehud Reiter and Chris Mellish. Using classification to generate text. In *Proceedings of the 30th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL-1992)*, pages 265–272, 1992.
- [Reiter and Mellish, 1993] Ehud Reiter and Chris Mellish. Optimising the costs and benefits of natural language generation. In *Proceedings of the 13th International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI-1993)*, volume 2, pages 1164–1169, 1993.
- [Reiter et al., 1992] Ehud Reiter, Chris Mellish, and John Levine. Automatic generation of on-line documentation in the IDAS project. In *Proceedings of the Third Conference on Applied Natural Language Processing (ANLP-1992)*, pages 64–71, Trento, Italy, 1992.
- [Ritchie et al., 1992] Graeme Ritchie, Graham Russell, Alan Black, and Stephen Pulman. Computational Morphology: Practical Mechanisms for the English Lexicon. MIT Press, 1992.
- [Rosch, 1978] Eleanor Rosch. Principles of categorization. In E. Rosch and B. Lloyd, editors, *Cognition and Categorization*, pages 27–48. Lawrence Erlbaum, Hillsdale, NJ, 1978.
- [Rösner, 1992] Dietmar Rösner. Remarks on multilinguality and generation. In R. Dale et al., editors, Aspects of Automated Natural Language Generation: Proceedings of the Sixth International Natural Language Generation Workshop, pages 306–308. Springer-Verlag, 1992. Number 587 in Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence.
- [Roth et al., 1991] Stephen Roth, Joe Mattis, and Xavier Mesnard. Graphics and natural language as components of automatic explanation. In Joseph Sullivan and Sherman Tyler, editors, *Intelligent User Interfaces*, pages 207–239. ACM Press (Addison-Wesley), 1991.
- [Springer et al., 1991] Stephen Springer, Paul Buta, and Thomas Wolf. Automatic letter composition for customer service. In Reid Smith and Carlisle Scott, editors, *Innovative Applications of Artificial Intelligence 3 (Proceedings of CAIA-1991)*. AAAI Press, 1991.
- [Wahlster et al., 1993] Wolfgang Wahlster, Elisabeth André, Wolfgang Finkler, Hans-Jürgen Profitlich, and Thomas Rist. Plan-based integration of natural language and graphics generation. Artificial Intelligence, 63:387–427, 1993.
- [Wilensky et al., 1988] Robert Wilensky, David Chin, Marc Luria, James Martin, James Mayfield, and Dekai Wu. The Berkeley UNIX consultant project. Computational Linguistics, 14(4):35–85, 1988.

```
; The initial query
; This is the 'What is the lever' query in Figure 1
Basic question is WHAT
Component is LLEVER-TEST-HEAD12
Task is OPERATIONS
User-model is SKILLED
Focus-list is NIL
; The output of content-determination
Schema function is
  (IDENTIFY-SCHEMA : BULLET? NIL : UNABBREVIATE? T)
Schema properties are ((COLOUR BLACK))
Followups are (WHERE)
; The output of sentence planning
SPL is
   (S1543 / IDENTITY
     :DOMAIN (LLEVER-TEST-HEAD12 /
               |locking lever| :PRONOUN YES)
     :RANGE (R1542 /
               |locking lever| :DETERMINER INDEFINITE
               :RELATIONS
                ((R1545 / |colour| :DOMAIN R1542
                  :RANGE (R1544 / BLACK)))))
; The output of surface realisation
It is a black locking lever.
```

Figure 2: A Trace of Response 8 in Figure 1

II Browser II Browser II Browser II Browser II Browser III Browse				
How do I use the test head? Unlock the IIA mechanism. Mount the the test head. ITA to the test head. Lock it to the test head. WENU WHAT WHERE How do I unlock the test head's IIA mechanism? Release the test head's lever. Pull it down. MENU	the computer the instrument rack the black power supply the silver power supply the test head. (ENU WHAT WHERE	• the test head. • the test head. • the test head. • the test head. • The printer	what are the subcomponents of the <u>ATE</u> ? • The <u>printer</u> • the <u>computer</u> • the <u>instrument rack</u> • the <u>MC power supply</u> • the mains control unit	
How do I use the test head? Unlock the ITA mechanism. Mount the ITA to the test head. Lock it to the test head. MENU WHAT WHERE How do I unlock the test head's lever. Pull it down. WENU WHAT WHERE What is the lever? It is a black locking lever. MENU WHERE	Where is the <u>test head?</u> The test head is above the instrument rack. MENU WHAT USE	What is the <u>test head?</u> It is a Racal TH10-X test head w part number OPT-RT1. MENU WHERE PURPOSE SPECS PARTS CONNECT	What is the <u>test head?</u> It is a Racal TH10 test head. MENU WHERE USE	I1 Browser
	What is the <u>lever?</u> It is a black locking lever. MENU WHERE		How do I use the <u>test head?</u> <u>Unlock</u> the <u>ITA mechanism</u> . <u>Mount</u> the <u>ITA</u> to the test head. <u>Lock</u> it to the test head. <u>MENU WHAT WHERE</u>	T

le <u>cylindre</u> • il contrôle l'<u>arrivée</u> <u>d'essence</u> *quoi sert le <u>carburateur</u>?* Il contrôle l'<u>arrivée</u> <u>d'air</u> dans

dans le <u>gicleur</u>. MENU QUOI OU PIECES REGLER

Comment régler le <u>carburateur</u>?
Dévissez le <u>papillon des gaz</u> du
volet de départ. Jaugez la <u>cuve</u>
pression.

MENU QUOI OU PIECES FONCTION de e

What is the purpose of the

- carburettor?

 It controls the air the <u>cylinder</u> intake ij
- it controls the <u>fuel</u> intake in
- MENU WHAT WHERE PARTS ADJUST the $\underline{\text{fuel}}$ $\underline{\text{duct}}$.

Unscrew the <u>starter cam's throttle</u> butterfly. Gauge the <u>pressure</u> How do I adjust the carburettor? MENU WHAT WHERE PARTS PURPOSE valve.

> De quoi se compose le carburateur?

- La <u>cuve</u> <u>de</u> <u>pression</u>
 la <u>pompe</u> <u>de</u> <u>reprise</u>
 le <u>qicleur</u>
 le <u>cylindre</u>
 le <u>cylindre</u>
 le <u>reprise</u>
 le <u>orichisseur</u> <u>a</u> 110
 le volet <u>de</u> <u>départ</u>.

MENU QUOI OU FONCTION REGLER

carburettor? The pressure valve

What are the components

- the dund

• the fuel duct
• the cylinder
• the rich fuel valve
• the starter cam.

MENU MHAT MHERE PURPOSE ADJUST